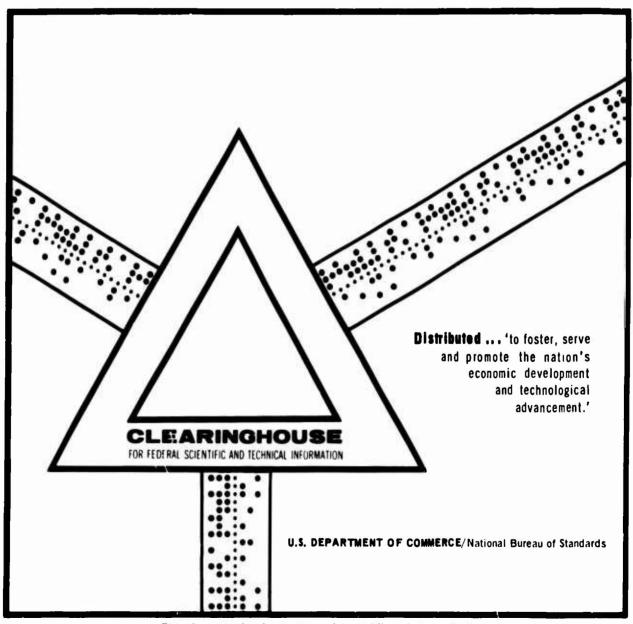
THE MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM OF A POSITIVE DEFINITE QUADRATIC POLYNOMIAL ON A SPHERE ARE CONVEX FUNCTIONS OF THE RADIUS

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# Abstract

It is proved that in euclidean n-space the maximum  $M(\rho)$  and minimum  $m(\rho)$  of a fixed positive definite quadratic polynomial Q on spheres with fixed center are both convex functions of the radius  $\rho$  of the sphere. In the proof, which uses elementary calculus and a result of Forsythe and Golub,  $m''(\rho)$  and  $M''(\rho)$  are shown to exist and lie in the interval  $[2\lambda_1,2\lambda_n]$ , where  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of the quadratic form of Q. Hence  $m''(\rho)>0$  and  $M''(\rho)>0$ .

#### Summary

Let A be a given symmetric, nonsingular matrix of real elements and order n. Let b be a given column vector of n real elements.

For each real column n-vector x, the nonhomogeneous quadratic polynomial

$$Q(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{\mathrm{T}} A(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

(T denotes transpose) is a real number. Let  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \ldots \leq \lambda_n$  be the (necessarily) real eigenvalues of A. Let  $m(\rho)$  be the minimum of Q(x) on the sphere  $S_{\rho} = \{x \colon x^T x = \rho^2\}$ , and let  $M(\rho)$  be the maximum of Q(x) on  $S_{\rho}$ . M. J. D. Powell asked the author whether  $m(\rho)$  is a convex function of  $\rho$  when A is positive definite. An affirmative answer is given by the theorem:

(1) Theorem. If A is positive definite (i.e., if  $0 < \lambda_1$ ), then both  $m(\rho) \text{ and } M(\rho) \text{ are convex functions of } \rho \text{ , for all } \rho > 0 \text{ .}$ 

Theorem (1) will follow from the following result:

(2) Theorem. Let A be any nonsingular matrix. Then for  $\rho > 0$ , the second derivatives m''( $\rho$ ) and M'( $\rho$ ) both exist, and

(3) 
$$m''(\rho) \geq 2\lambda_1 \quad \text{and} \quad M''(\rho) \geq 2\lambda_1.$$

Equality occurs in (3) if and only if  $Ab = \lambda_1 b$ . Moreover,

(4) 
$$m''(\rho) \leq 2\lambda_n \quad and \quad M''(\rho) \leq 2\lambda_n$$

and equality occurs in (4) if and only if  $Ab = \lambda_n b$ .

#### Review of Previous Work

The proof of Theorem (2) is based on techniques developed in Forsythe and Golub [1], which dealt only with the case  $\rho=1$ . The relevant results of [1] are now summarized and extended to general  $\rho$ .

Let  $\{u_1,\ldots,u_n\}$  be an orthonormal real set of eigenvectors of  $\Lambda$ , with  $\Delta u_i=\lambda_i u_i$  (i = 1,...,n). Let  $b=\sum b_i u_i$ . For any vector x in F at which Q(x) is stationary with respect to F, there is a real number  $\lambda$  with

(5) 
$$\Lambda(x-b) = \lambda x$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{\rho}^{\mathrm{C}}$$

Letting  $x = \sum x_i u_i$ , we find from (5) that

$$x_{i} = \frac{x_{i}b_{i}}{\lambda_{i}-\lambda} ,$$

so that (6) becomes

$$\varepsilon(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{2} b_{i}^{2}}{(\lambda_{i} - \lambda)^{2}} = \rho^{2}$$

For each given value of  $\rho>0$ , equation (8) determines from 2 to 2n real values of  $\lambda$ . For each  $\lambda$  so determined, equation (5) determines one or more vectors  $\mathbf{x}^{\lambda}$  (if all  $\mathbf{b}_{\underline{i}}\neq 0$ , then  $\mathbf{x}^{\lambda}$  is unique). For any  $\mathbf{x}^{\lambda}$ , we have

$$Q(x^{\lambda}) = f(\lambda) ,$$

where

(10) 
$$r(\lambda) = \lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i v_i^2}{(\lambda_i - \lambda)^2}$$

Now Q(x) is stationary with respect to S at any  $x^{\lambda}$ . For given  $\rho$ , let  $\Lambda_L = \Lambda_L(\rho)$  and  $\Lambda_R = \Lambda_R(\rho)$  be the smallest resp. largest values of  $\lambda$  satisfying equation (8). Theorem (4.1) of [1] states that  $f(\Lambda_L)$  and  $f(\Lambda_R)$  are the minimum resp. maximum values of Q(x) on S<sub>\rho</sub>.

Much of [1] was devoted to the singular cases where some  $b_i=0$ . For the present investigation, where we are interested only in the values of Q(x), we simply omit from the sums (8) and (10) all terms with  $b_i=0$ , and reduce n , if necessary. Having done that, it is then clear from (8) that, for any  $\rho$ ,

This concludes the necessary summary of [1].

As a digression, the author notes that the main theorems (2.7) and (4.1) of [1] were proved in [1] by studying  $f(\lambda)$  and  $g(\lambda)$  for complex values of  $\lambda$ . In late 1965, Professor W. Kahan [unpublished] showed us how to prove those theorems more simply, using only real values of  $\lambda$ .

### Proof of Theorem (2).

With the above apparatus our problem is reduced to an exercise in the differential calculus. For each  $\rho>0$  we determine a unique Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda=\lambda(\rho)$  from (8) -- either the minimal  $\Lambda_L$  or maximal  $\Lambda_R$  . For ease of exposition, suppose  $\lambda(\rho)=\Lambda_L$  . Then the function

(12) 
$$m(\rho) = f(\lambda(\rho))$$

is determined from (10). Since  $f(\lambda)$  and  $g(\lambda)$  are analytic for  $\lambda < \lambda_1$ , the function  $m(\rho)$  has derivatives of all order. We shall determine  $m''(\rho)$  by calculus. To simplify some expressions, we introduce the abbreviations

(13) 
$$\alpha_{p} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{2} b_{i}^{2}}{(\lambda_{i} - \lambda)^{2}}$$
 (p = 2, 3, 4).

Differentiating (10) and simplifying, we find:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\lambda} = 2\lambda\alpha_{3} \quad ;$$

$$\frac{d^2f}{d\lambda^2} = 2\alpha_3 + 6\lambda\alpha_{14} .$$

Now equation (8) states that, when  $\lambda = \lambda(\rho)$ ,

$$\alpha_2 = \rho^2 \qquad .$$

Differentiating (8) twice with respect to  $\rho$  yields

$$\frac{d\lambda}{d\rho} \alpha_{\beta} = \rho ;$$

$$\frac{d^2\lambda}{d\rho^2}\alpha_3 + 3\left(\frac{d\lambda}{d\rho}\right)^2\alpha_4 = 1.$$

Solving (17) and (18) in turn, we find

(19) 
$$\frac{d\lambda}{d\rho} = \frac{\rho}{\alpha_{5}} ;$$

(20) 
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \chi}{\mathrm{d}\rho^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha_3} - \frac{3\rho^2 \alpha_{14}}{\alpha_3^2}$$

Now, by the chain rule,

$$\frac{dm}{d\rho} = \frac{df}{d\lambda} \cdot \frac{d\lambda}{d\rho} ,$$

and

(21) 
$$\frac{d^2m}{d\rho^2} = \frac{d^2f}{2\lambda^2} \left(\frac{d\lambda}{d\rho}\right)^2 + \frac{df}{d\lambda} \cdot \frac{d^2\lambda}{d\rho^2} .$$

We now substitute into (21) the expressions (14), (15), (19), and (20). We find that

(22) 
$$m''(\rho) = \frac{d^2m}{d\rho^2} = (2\alpha_3 + 6\lambda\alpha_4) \frac{\rho^2}{\alpha_3^2} + 2\lambda\alpha_3 \left(\frac{1}{\alpha_3} - \frac{3\rho^2\alpha_4}{\alpha_3^3}\right)$$

Hence

$$\frac{1}{2} m''(\rho) = \lambda + \frac{\rho^2}{\alpha_3} = \frac{1}{\alpha_3} (\lambda \alpha_3 + \alpha_2) , \text{ by (16)}.$$

Simplifying,

$$\frac{1}{2} m''(\rho) = \frac{1}{\alpha_3} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda_i^3 b_i^2}{(\lambda_i - \lambda)^3} , \text{ or }$$

(23) 
$$\frac{1}{2} m''(\rho) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{3} b_{i}^{2}}{(\lambda_{i}^{-} \lambda)^{3}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{2} b_{i}^{2}}{(\lambda_{i}^{-} \lambda)^{3}}$$

Formula (23) is the end of our calculus exercise. In it,  $\lambda$  is determined from solving (8). Note by (11) that the factors  $(\lambda_i - \lambda)^3$  all have the same sign for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ , whether  $\lambda = \Lambda_L$  or  $\lambda = \Lambda_R$ . Hence  $\frac{1}{2}$  m"( $\rho$ ) is a weighted average with positive weights of the  $\{\lambda_i\}$ .

It follows that  $\frac{1}{2}$  m"( $\rho$ )  $\geq \lambda_1$ , with equality only when all  $\lambda_1$  in (23) are equal to  $\lambda_1$ , i.e., if  $b_1$  = 0 for  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_1$ . This proves (3), and (4) is proved analogously. This concludes the proof of Theorem (2). It would be desirable to have a simple geometrical proof.

# What if A is singular?

If A is singular, that is, if some  $\lambda_i=0$ , the situation is somewhat more complicated, just as the case where some  $\lambda_i b_i=0$  is complicated in [1]. Theorem (2) fails to hold for semidefinite matrices, because  $m''(\rho)$  may not exist for some  $\rho$ , as the following example shows:

(24) Example. For n = 2 let  $Q(x) = (x_2-1)^2$ , where  $x = (x_1, x_2)^T$ .

Then

$$m(\rho) = \begin{cases} 1-\rho & , & 0 \le \rho \le 1 \\ 0 & , & 1 \le \rho < \infty \end{cases}$$

so m"(1) does not exist.

If  $\lambda_1=0$  , the Lagrange multiplier remains at  $\lambda=0$  for all sufficiently large  $\rho$  .

Theorem (1) can easily be extended to semidefinite matrices by continuity. We have

(25) Theorem. If A is positive semidefinite (i.e., if  $0 \le \lambda_1$ ),

then both  $m(\rho)$  and  $M(\rho)$  are convex functions of  $\rho$  for  $\rho > 0$ .

In proof, we note that  $m(\rho)$  and  $M(\rho)$  are continuous functions of the elements of A . If A is semidefinite, it can be approximated by a definite matrix  $A_{\mathcal{E}}$ , for which  $m_{\mathcal{E}}$  and  $M_{\mathcal{E}}$  are convex, with  $\|A-A_{\mathcal{E}}\|<\mathcal{E}$ . Letting  $\mathcal{E}\to 0$ , we find that  $m=\lim_{\mathcal{E}} m_{\mathcal{E}}$  and  $M=\lim_{\mathcal{E}} M_{\mathcal{E}}$  are convex.

# Reference

[1] George E. Forsythe and Gene H. Golub, "On the stationary values of a second-degree polynomial on the unit sphere",

J. Soc. Indust. Appl. Math., vol. 13 (1965), pp. 1050-1068.

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